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MODERATORS OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE QUALITY
OF LEADER-MEMBER EXCHANGE RELATIONSHIP (LMX) AND
ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIORS (OCB)

A Thesis
Presented to the
Faculty of
California State University,
San Bernardino

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Science
in
Psychology:
Industrial/Organizational

by
Jennifer Anne Lee

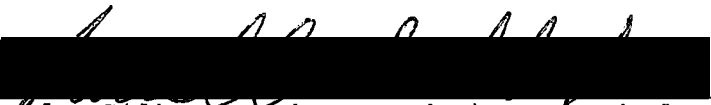
June 2008


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ABSTRACT

There has been a considerable amount of research that has examined how leaders can be effective within an organization and how they can significantly influence individual and organizational performance. There has also been evidence to support that there are dispositional attributes that will moderate the relationship between the quality of leader-member exchange relationships (LMX) and organizational performance measured by Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCB). The purpose of this study is to add support to the literature of the moderated relationship between LMX and OCB. In order to test this, a sample was employed that consisted of 127 participants of both men and women from various organizational and educational backgrounds, and undergraduate students. The participants were surveyed using a battery of scales that measured LMX, OCB, and the four personality moderators; intrinsic motivation, conscientiousness, positive affectivity, and negative affectivity. The findings were inconsistent with the literature on the relationship of LMX and OCB, but aided in providing additional support to the predictive power of personality.

DEDICATION

To my family and friends:

Thank you for your support, patience, and
words of encouragement.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

There have been many theories that have examined how leaders can be effective within an organization. Considerable research has shown that leaders can significantly influence the individual, the group, and the organization's performance (Gerstner & Day, 1997). In examining the impact of leaders on followers, the majority of leadership research has focused on the effects of leaders' general behaviors or attitudes toward subordinates. The research has suggested that leaders will assume that all of their members are essentially similar in terms of how leaders behave and use their influences toward their members in order to accomplish their organizational goals (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975).

However, other research has shown that how a leader acts toward a subordinate varies depending on whether the subordinate is perceived as competent and loyal or incompetent and untrustworthy (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). The assessment of competence and dependability between leaders and members is based upon the leader's interpretation of the subordinate's behavior and performance. Research in this area, specifically

attribution theory, describes the cognitive processes used by leaders to determine the reasons for effective or ineffective performance and the appropriate reactions (Yukl, 2006).

More specifically, when taking into account what the literature says regarding how these different relationships form between leaders and their subordinates, individual differences begin to play an important role. Naturally, the relationships that leaders have with their subordinates will occur in the work place, and the effects of these relationships will affect the performance and behaviors displayed by the subordinates. However, the magnitude of the relationship between both leader-member relationships and performance can be affected by individual differences. The purpose of this study is to examine individual differences' role as a moderator for the relationship between leader-member quality relationships and performance outcomes.

When examining a leaders' perception of their subordinates, there is one particular theory that explains the role making process, and the exchange relationship that develops over time between leader and member. This theory is called Leader Member Exchange Theory or LMX (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). The theory was formerly called

the Vertical Dyad Linkage theory because of its concentration on the reciprocal influence processes within vertical dyads that compose the relationship between leader and member (Yukl, 2006). LMX is distinguished from other leadership theories by its focus on dyadic relationships that are formed between a leader and a member. Traditional theories explain leadership as a function of personal characteristics of the leader, feature of the situation, or an interaction between the two (Gerstner & Day, 1997). LMX is unique in its adoption of the dyadic relationship as the level of the analysis (Gerstner & Day, 1997). The theory focuses on increasing organizational success by creating positive relationships between the leader and subordinate.

According to LMX, the quality of the relationship that develops between a leader and a follower is predictive of outcomes at the individual, group, and organizational levels. For the purpose of this study, there will be a focus on outcomes at the individual level. The dyadic relationships that are developed between leader and member are the basis of the theory (Gerstner & Day, 1997). The evolution of LMX has been classified into four stages (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). These four stages are: a) work socialization and vertical dyad linkage where the

focus was on the discovery of differentiated dyads, b) LMX where the focus was on the relationship quality and its outcomes, c) an approach that examined the dyadic partnership building, and d) LMX as a systems-level perspective (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). The majority of empirically based research on LMX evaluates factors that are thought to contribute to high-quality exchanges, and analyzing the connection between LMX and work related outcomes. For example, in a study performed by Basu and Green (1997), they were interested in the relationship between LMX and innovative behavior in leader-member dyads. Their results indicated that high quality relationships were positively related to follower autonomy, leader support of followers, and follower commitment to the organization (Basu & Green, 1997). The study also found that followers who were supported by their leaders and who were committed to the organizations were more likely to be innovative and produce better performance outcomes, which are characteristics that are associated with high quality relationships. The study further supports the notion that LMX and the quality of the relationships formed will affect work related outcomes.

In addition, the basic component of the LMX theory supports the idea that leaders develop a separate exchange relationship with each subordinate as the two parties mutually define the subordinate's role in the organization. Research done by Graen and Cashman (1975) suggested that exchange relationships were formed on the basis of personal compatibility and subordinate competence and dependability. As time goes on, and the relationship develops between the subordinate and leader, a leader more likely establishes either a high-exchange relationship or a low-exchange relationship with each subordinate.

The Leader-Member Exchange Role Making Stages

Both high and low quality relationships start very soon after a person joins an organization. A high quality relationship is characterized as being beneficial to both the leader and the subordinate, and a low quality relationship is more formal and streamlines more outcomes for both parties (Liden et al., 1997). Research has shown the relationship between leaders and members goes through three stages. The three stages are role taking, role making, and routinization (Yukl, 2006).

The first stage is role-taking, when the subordinate joins the organization and the leader evaluates his or her

abilities and talents (Graen & Cashman, 1975). Based upon this initial evaluation, the leader may offer opportunities to demonstrate the capabilities of the subordinate. During this stage, there is an initial testing phase in which the leader and subordinate evaluate each other's benefits. Some leader-member relationships will never go past this stage. If the relationship does proceed to the second stage, then the exchange arrangement is refined and mutual trust, loyalty, and respect for one another is developed (Liden, Wayne, & Stilwel, 1993).

The second stage is role-making when the leader and subordinate take part in an unstructured and informal negotiation, whereby a role is created for the subordinate and the unspoken promise of benefit and power are displayed (Graen & Cashman, 1975). As an outcome of this promise for dedication and loyalty, the new role of the member will take place. Trust-building is very important during this stage, and any feelings of betrayal, especially any expressed by the leader, can result in the subordinate being demoted to the out-group or a low-quality relationship (Graen & Cashman, 1975). The negotiation between the leader and member includes relationship factors as well as pure work related ones. The idea of trust-building was tested and supported by

Liden, Wayne, and Stilwel (1993). They concluded that a subordinate who is ultimately similar to the leader in various ways will be favored and liked by the leader and will be more likely to succeed in the organization.

Some relationships then go on and proceed to the third and final stage, where the exchange is based upon self-interest. The final stage of the relationship making process between a leader and a subordinate is routinization (Graen & Cashman, 1975). In this phase, patterns of social exchange between the leader and subordinate become established (Graen & Cashman, 1975). In this stage, the exchange is transformed into mutual commitment among both the leader and subordinate to the mission and objectives of the organization (Liden, Wayne, & Stilwel, 1993). Being a successful in-group (high-quality relationship) member usually includes being similar in many ways to the leader. Due to this similarity, the relationship will be more likely to form and the subordinate will work hard at building and sustaining trust and respect with the leader. The subordinates are often empathetic, patient, reasonable, sensitive, and are good at seeing the viewpoint of other people, especially their leader (Liden et al., 1993). Those subordinates that do not make it to this final stage

will fall into the out-group or a low-quality relationship. Aggression, sarcasm, and self-centered views are qualities seen in the out-group (Graen & Cashman, 1975).

Quality of the Relationships

Prior research supports the organizationally advantageous nature of a high quality leader- member exchange (Liden & Graen, 1980). The quality of the LMX relationship varies from member to member. It is better when the challenge of the job is extremely high or extremely low. Researchers have proposed several explanations interpreting supervisor-subordinate relationships. For example, one approach suggests that supervisors use a similar or average leadership style toward all subordinates (Graen, Liden, & Hoel, 1982). In contrast, the LMX role-making model suggests that supervisors employ a social exchange framework in which varying types of relationships are established with subordinates (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). These relatively stable relationships quickly develop because of the supervisor's time limitations and range on a continuum from lower to higher quality exchanges (Liden et al., 1993).

Most leaders tend to develop a high exchange relationship with a small number of trusted subordinates who function as assistants or in positions that are close to the leader (Danserau, 1995). High quality exchange relationships are characterized by transactions that exhibit considerable interpersonal attraction, mutual trust, strong loyalty, comfortable communication, and bidirectional influence (Dienesch & Liden, 1986). In general, leaders usually have special relationships with an inner circle of assistants and advisors, who often get high levels of responsibility and access to resources that others in the organization may not be offered (Dienesch et al., 1986). This is often called the "in-group". These employees work harder, are more committed to task objectives, and share more administrative duties (Dienesch et al., 1986). According to findings by Gerstner and Day (1997) they indicated that in-group members are more satisfied with their job, have higher levels of organizational commitment, clearer views of what their role is, and receive better performance ratings from their supervisors. In-group outcomes are those that include getting an assignment that is interesting and has desirable tasks, delegation of greater responsibility and authority, more sharing of information, participation in

making some of the leader's decisions, rewards such as pay increase, special benefits, personal support, and facilitation of the subordinate's career (Danserau, 1995). In return for this higher status, a subordinate has additional obligations and costs. They are expected to work harder, be more committed, exhibit more loyalty to the leader, and to share some of the leader's administrative duties (Danserau, 1995). The development of high exchange relationships occurs gradually overtime and through reciprocal reinforcement of behavior as the exchange cycle is repeated over and over again. If the cycle is not broken, the relationship is likely to develop a high degree of mutual dependence, loyalty, and support (Danserau, 1995).

The benefits of a high exchange relationship are useful, but there are also disadvantages. Since the subordinate has access to important information and is loyal, certain obligations and constraints maybe created for the leader (Kinicki & Veechio, 1994). To maintain this relationship, the leader must provide attention to the subordinate, remain responsive to his or her needs and feelings, and rely more on time consuming influence methods such as persuasion and consultation (Yukl, 2006). The leader cannot resort to coercion or heavy-handed use

of authority without endangering the special type of relationship.

Ferguson (2004) examined some of the outcomes that happened due to high quality relationships. In her study she tested the idea that high quality LMX relationships are characterized by trust and relatively higher levels of information exchange (Graen & Scandura, 1987). Gossip relationships are also characterized by these qualities, therefore suggesting that leaders may gossip more with high LMX members. Members expect communications equity from leaders (Timm, 1978). However, inequity perceptions have been found to be positively related to intragroup relationship conflict (Wall & Nolan, 1986), suggesting a possible association between differentiated leader gossiping behavior and relationship conflict among subordinates. The results of the study indicated that lower quality LMX relationships were significantly more likely ($r = -.339$) to report that their leader gossiped with others in the subordinate work group. In terms of communication, this study gives additional support to the advantage that higher quality relationships have over lower quality relationships.

In contrast, low exchange relationships are established and characterized by a relatively low level of

mutual influence. These types of relationships and exchanges are restricted levels of reciprocal influence and support (Deluga, 1998). Supervisors exert formal organizational authority and provide subordinates with standard organizational benefits in low quality relationships. These members are in the out-group and are more likely given mundane assignments to work on, receive less supervisory support, and feel more negatively about their jobs (Gerstner & Day, 1997). In return, subordinates comply with their formally defined job requirements and follow legitimate supervisor requests (Graen & Cashman, 1975).

Conversely, subordinates in the out-group are given lower levels of choice or influence, which can put constraints on the leader (Graen & Cashman, 1975). To satisfy those leaders in the out-group, subordinates need only to comply with formal role requirements. As long as this type of compliance is there, and the subordinate receives the standard benefits for the job, the subordinate in the out-group will continue to perform as normal (Graen & Cashman, 1975). This makes it difficult on the leader to motivate his or her employees and change the way the organization is currently running.

There has been little agreement on what LMX is or how it should be measured (Gerstner & Day, 1997). The progression of the theory has been illustrated by the changes in the LMX measurement instruments over the years. The construct of LMX has evolved from a two-item measure, to a more elaborate multi-dimensional scale (Schriesheim, Nader, Scandura, & Tepper, 1992). Since different studies used different LMX scales, it has been unclear whether conflicting results are due to deficiencies in the theory or in the operationalization of the core construct (Gerstner & Day, 1997). There have been recent studies using meta-analytic techniques that have developed a stronger measurement for this construct. The seven item LMX measure or LMX-7 (Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp, 1982) demonstrates the highest reliability and largest correlations with other variables, which is not what the other LMX measures showed.

The scale measures LMX from both the leaders' perspective and the members' perspective. Graen and Cashman (1975) found a correlation of .50 between leader and member LMX. Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) suggested that the degree of leader-member agreement can be used as an index of the quality of data. The LMX-7 scale is used to

determine the quality of the dyadic relationship in an organization.

The Leader-Member Exchange and Its' Effectiveness

LMX is generally found to be associated with positive performance and attitudinal variables, especially those that are related to subordinates. Among these variables are stronger organizational commitment and the behaviors that are associated with these (Nystrom, 1990). Although there are many different types of commitment that are discussed in the literature, research in the area has focused on including measures of commitment to the employing organization (Gerstner & Day, 1997).

Also, LMX contributes to organizational effectiveness in the same way that high quality relationship effectiveness has on the organization. This can be examined by the extent to which employees engage in behaviors beyond their prescribed roles (Gerstner & Day, 1997). The importance of such behaviors for organizational effectiveness was recognized by Katz (1964), who underlined the need for employees' innovative and spontaneous activity beyond their specified roles. It was later found that these types of employee behaviors were labeled as "organizational citizenship behaviors" or OCB

(Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). Citizenship behaviors are those that are likely to lead to reciprocation because they reflect discretionary individually behaviors that are less likely to be recognized by just looking at the normal job descriptions (Ilies et al., 2007). These behaviors are rather a matter of personal choice, meaning the exclusion of the behavior is not generally understood as punishable. OCB is thought to have an important impact on the effectiveness and efficiency of work teams and organizations, therefore contributing to the overall productivity of the organization (Ilies et al., 2007). In other words, subordinates that are in high quality LMX relationships with their leaders will "pay back" their leaders by participating in these discretionary behaviors which will then benefit the leader and others in the work setting (Liden et al., 1997).

Research has begun to take a considerable amount of interest in understanding how LMX relates to a host of performance outcomes. These outcomes include in role (task) performance as well as attitudinal variables, such as satisfaction with the leader and organizational commitment (Ilies et al., 2007).

Foundations of The Leader-Member Exchange and Citizenship Behavior Relationship

High quality leader member relationships or exchanges are characterized by high levels of trust, interaction, support, and formal and informal rewards (Dienesch & Liden, 1986). Such relationships include the exchange of material and nonmaterial goods that extend beyond what is being specified in the formal job description (Liden et al., 1997). For example, high quality LMX relationships have been positively associated with subordinate-supervisor mutual support, subordinate in-role (job required) performance, and extra-role activity, such as organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) (Graen & Scandura, 1987). Due to this, to reciprocate high LMX relationships, it is likely that subordinates will have to go beyond required in-role behavior and engage in citizenship behaviors in order to maintain a balanced or equitable social exchange (Wayne et al., 2002). It has also been tested by Hackett et al. (2003) through meta-analytic techniques, that high quality LMX relationship increases organizational citizenship behaviors on the part of subordinates.

Over the past 20 years, several scholars have studied potential determinants of OCB in order to better

understand how OCB might be increased. This impressive body of research has found that there are key relational, dispositional, and attitudinal correlates of OCB (Lapierre & Hackett, 2007): Included in these correlates of OCB is LMX. Researchers have overwhelmingly positioned OCB as a consequence of higher LMX quality relationships and job satisfaction (Lapierre et al., 2007). It has also been found by Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1993) that higher LMX quality may enhance job satisfaction that would then proceed to promote OCB in satisfied employees. The purpose of the study performed by Lapierre and Hackett (2007) was to determine the directionality of whether it was the dispositional attributes of the employee that promoted OCB and consequently lead to higher LMX quality relationships or is it the higher LMX quality relationships that promote OCB in employees. The study found support that OCB represents employee reciprocation for the satisfying job experiences typically stemming from higher quality LMX, and their findings help to legitimize the notion that OCB may be used, particularly by more conscientiousness employees, as a means of nurturing higher LMX quality relationships and therefore they gain access to more satisfying job experiences (Lapierre et al., 2007).

The idea that LMX is related to different types of performance parallels are described in the distinctions in the literature between task and citizenship behaviors. Research in the area has begun to increase its attention on describing aspects of an individual's job performance that fall outside the bounds of traditional conceptualizations of quantity and quality of a particular task and the performance of the task (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). Researchers have therefore adopted a variety of different labels to describe these aspects. Such labels include organizational citizenship behavior, prosocial organizational behavior, organizational spontaneity, contextual performance, and extra-role behavior (Ilies et al., 2007). This study will be focusing on organizational citizenship behaviors.

LMX research has supported the idea that the quality of relationship has a positive relationship with the frequency in which followers engage in activities beyond the employment contract (Liden & Graen, 1980). There have been many ways to quantitatively express this relationship. In a meta-analysis performed by Ilies et al. (2007) their objective was to review the relationship between the quality of leader-member exchanges (LMX) and citizenship behaviors performed by employees. The results

of the study indicated a moderately strong, positive relationship between LMX and citizenship behaviors ($r = .37$). The study provided a meta-analytic estimate of the relationship between LMX and citizenship behaviors.

Hypothesis 1: Quality of LMX will be positively related to OCB.

Moderators of The Leader-Member Exchange Citizenship Behavior Relationship

Although the hypothesized relationship described above occurs naturally in the workplace, the magnitude of the relationship may differ from individual to individual. Perhaps it is that the relationship between LMX and OCB is not complete, and that there is another factor that will strengthen the likelihood that OCB will happen. The variation between individuals may be due to individual differences, which are inherent stable trait characteristics that will strengthen the likelihood that OCB outcomes will in fact occur.

This portion of the review focuses on the idea that the variable, individual differences, will moderate the relationship between LMX and OCB. Due to the nature of Industrial/Organizational Psychology and the research interests and benefits that are focused on, the individual differences that were chosen to be moderators were those

that were related to the workplace. These were found to be highly correlated in the research with OCB.

When looking at OCB conceptually, citizenship behaviors at work can be distinguished according to the outcome of the behavior (Lee & Allen, 2002). Individually targeted behaviors are those that immediately and indirectly benefit the organization. The dimension of individually-targeted behaviors is mostly comprised of helping behaviors as well as other positive cooperative behaviors (Ilies et al., 2007). These types of cooperative behaviors can include altruism and courtesy. On the other hand, organizational targeted behaviors are those that are going to be geared toward the organization, and benefit the organization as a whole (Williams & Anderson, 1991). This dimension includes creative and innovative behaviors and those behaviors that indicate organizational loyalty, compliance, conscientiousness, civic virtue, and job dedication (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

When deciding to assess the validity of various predictors of citizenship behaviors, one needs to make the distinction between which type of behavioral dimension they will want to express. Then they need to consider the relationship between the predictors and the behavioral dimensions (Ilies et al., 2007). When applying this to the

effect of LMX on work behavior, LMX would more likely predict behaviors that are related to and are aligned with the inherently interpersonal nature of LMX. Due to this, LMX would be more strongly related to individually targeted citizenship behaviors because employees reciprocate the support and rewards from the supervisor by performing citizenship behaviors that benefit the supervisor. Since the citizenship behaviors are not part of the formal reward system set up by the organization, they are then rewarded informally through LMX (Ilies et al., 2007). Thus, individually targeted citizenship behaviors represent an avenue for the employee to deliver outcomes that benefit his or her supervisor (Wayne & Green, 1993).

Properties of Moderators in Leadership Research

Moderators are generally agreed by researchers to affect the nature of the relationship between two other variables, without necessarily being correlated with either of them (Howell, Dorfman, & Kerr, 1986). Much of the most recent literature on leadership has been concerned with moderator (contingency) variables. This research has produced equivocal and/or conflicting results. Conceptually distinct variables have been treated

as if they operate in the same fashion. In a review performed by Howell et al. (1986), they suggested that there is a typology of moderators that are based on mechanisms by which moderators operate. Moderators are classified as neutralizers (interrupt the predictive relationship between a leader behavior and criteria)/enhancers (augment relationships between leader behaviors and criteria), substitutes (task, organizational, or subordinate characteristics which render relationships and/or task oriented leadership not only impossible but unnecessary)/supplements (task, organizational, or subordinate characteristics which neutralizes or replaces a leader's ability to influence subordinates' satisfaction or performance, or mediators ("intermediate step" between the independent and dependent variables) depending on how they affect leader behavior-criterion relationships (Howell et al., 1986).

Researchers have also used different means to identify moderators in leadership studies. Anova designs, median split designs, and hierarchical regression have been employed. Recent research indicates that all of the above approaches yield different information and the techniques many have been used inappropriately (Howell et al., 1986). For example, Arnold (1982) had pointed out

that the median split sample approach using simple correlations yields information regarding the degree of relationship between the two variables, while regression analysis provides information regarding the form or pattern of a relationship. Stone and Hollenbeck (1984) have noted in their work other problems with these statistical techniques being used for the wrong reasons. They suggest that hierarchical regression is the only appropriate method for moderator identification (Stone & Hollenbeck, 1984).

Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivational Orientations

Recently research has begun to look more into traits, and how individual differences play an important role in motivation. This evolved from looking at needs on an individual level. The research was sparked by evaluating the characteristics and values in leaders. When studying motivation, there were many traits that were looked at to describe why people were motivated by certain factors.

The most popular researched area of motivational theory was motivational orientations that were "self motivating" or could be perceived as those that have a nature of the structures to function (Deci & Ryan, 1985). It is those actions that were executed because they were

inherently interesting or enjoyable to an individual (Ryan & Deci, 2000). When a person was intrinsically motivated, they were moved to act in a manner that was for the fun or challenge entailed with the act rather than because of external prods, pressures, or rewards associated with the act (Ryan & Deci, 2000). It was the nature of assimilating the schema to function and the integration of these results from the operation of assimilation (Deci & Ryan, 1985). From the idea of individuals seeking to work towards assimilating stimuli, the research supported the idea that intrinsic motivation actively involved seeking and conquering challenges that one faced (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

There have been three recent programs of research that have treated intrinsic and extrinsic motivational orientations as variables that are to some extent trait-like (Amabile, Hill, Hennessey, & Tighe, 1994). By trait-like, the research means individual-difference characteristics that are stable across time and across situations (Amabile et al., 1994). There has been extensive research done in the area of distinguishing intrinsic and extrinsic motivational orientations as traits. Such research has been done by Harter (1981) where she developed a scale of intrinsic and extrinsic

motivation. This self-report instrument is composed of five subscales. Although her scale was intended as an individual differences measure, it did not present the constructs that were being measured as highly stable traits. Thus, Harter's (1981) position stands somewhere between a strong state view of motivational orientation and a strong trait view.

Another researcher, deCharms (1976), drew parallels between motivational orientation and personal causation. In other words extrinsically motivated individuals often felt like "pawns of authority", but intrinsically motivated individuals felt like individuals who behave out of freedom and self-investment (deCharms, 1976). The scale that deCharms (1976) developed to assess the extent to which individuals feel like origins or pawns in a given situation is the Origin Climate Scale. This scale like that of Harter's (1981), is equally oriented toward assessing the social environment's influence on self-perceptions of personal causation, so it is also a state measure as well as trait measure (deCharms, 1976).

The most common known measure of personal causation orientations was developed by Deci and Ryan (1985). Their scale, General Causality Orientations Scale, is designed to assess adult respondent's views of the causation of

behaviors. The scale is used to predict a relationship between causality orientation and intrinsic-extrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985). They suggested that those individuals that are autonomy-oriented individuals will more often be intrinsically motivated, and that those individuals that are more control-oriented will more often be extrinsically motivated (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

Intrinsic motivation has also been defined as performing an activity for no reward except the enjoyment of the activity itself. It has been defined as the amount of time subjects spend working on the target task, how well the task is liked and willingness to participate in future experiments, experimental enjoyment, and voluntary behavior displayed in an organization (Tang & Ibrahim, 1998). The nature of intrinsic motivation involves those individuals who perform activities at their own discretion and will remain self-determined and seek no reward that would be related to these activities (Tang & Ibrahim, 1998). These types of individuals tend to be favored by the leaders, because they will seek opportunities for the individual to grow in both status and knowledge in their position (Tang et al., 1998). Intrinsic motivation orientations will be more likely to put themselves in opportunities in which they can grow and these types of

behaviors will become apparent to the leader (Tang et al., 1998). It is a sign of commitment and loyalty and the leader will take notice of these individuals.

A more recent scale that has been developed to assess extrinsic and intrinsic motivation was designed by Amabile et al. (1994). This is called The Work Preference Inventory (Amabile et al., 1994). The WPI (Amabile et al., 1994) was designed to be used as a direct assessment of individual differences in the degree to which adults tend to perceive themselves to be either intrinsically or extrinsically motivated. Amabile et al. (1994) attempted to discover whether adults' intrinsic motivations and extrinsic motivations could be sub-classified in some type of meaningful way. The results indicated that the WPI (Amabile et al., 1994) has meaningful factor structures that are good short-term test and retest reliabilities, and show longer term stability. The scores obtained from the WPI (Amabile et al., 1994) are related in meaningful ways to other motivational questionnaires and behavioral measures of motivation, as well as personality characteristics, attitudes, and behaviors (Amabile et al., 1994).

Research in the area, has suggested that extrinsic rewards may undermine intrinsic motivation on a task, and

the lack of extrinsic reward may in fact enhance intrinsic motivation (Tang & Ibrahim, 1998). One important outcome in increasing an employee's intrinsic motivation may be to reduce the need for extrinsic rewards and the need to monitor an employee's task behavior. This may be controlled by the leader and the degree to which it is based upon the quality of the dyadic relationship.

OCB and intrinsic motivation share many similar characteristics. OCB reflects day to day spontaneous pro-social gestures at their own discretion and will, and OCB activities are largely unaffected by organizational reward and punishment (Tang & Ibrahim, 1998). Therefore, OCB can be considered an example of an employee's "intrinsic motivation" in an organization. Those individuals who have a high degree of intrinsic motivation are more likely to display these types of citizenship behaviors in the workplace.

Hypothesis 2: The relationship between quality of LMX and OCB will be moderated by intrinsic motivational orientations. The relationship will be strengthened between LMX and OCB. Due to the properties of the moderator in leadership theory, the moderator variable will enhance the relationship between LMX and OCB.

Conscientiousness

There has been quite a considerable amount of personality research that has concluded that the Big Five personality model offers a structural organization of traits in terms of five orthogonal factors (Digman, 1990). According to the Big Five model (Costa & McCrae, 1992), the five factors of personality traits provide a comprehensive system in which they organize all of the personality traits. The Big Five Personality Inventory is often used as a personality assessment (Costa & McCrae, 1992). The five trait classifications in the model are Extraversion, Neuroticism, Openness to Experience, Agreeableness, and Conscientiousness (Costa & McCrae, 1992). For this study, only Conscientiousness will be examined because of the strong relationship it has to OCB ($r = .42$) (Miller, Griffin, & Hart, 1999).

Conscientiousness refers to the extent to which the individual is dependable, achievement oriented, responsible, deliberate, and persevering in goal directed behavior (Deluga, 1998). Conscientiousness is the trait of being painstaking and careful, or the quality of acting according to the dictates of one's own conscience (Deluga, 1998). It includes such factors as self-discipline, carefulness, thoroughness, organization, deliberation (the

tendency to think carefully before acting), and need for achievement (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Conscientiousness is related to emotional intelligence and impulse control, but not to be confused with neuroticism.

Conscientious individuals are self-disciplined and resist distracting impulses and temptations. They are hardworking and reliable, and when taken to an extreme, they may also be workaholics, perfectionists, and compulsive in their behavior (Costa & McCrae, 1992). These individuals take a deliberate approach to organizing, planning, and completing tasks (Deluga, 1998). Individuals who have a high degree of conscientiousness will be beneficial to the organization. These types of individuals are going to be more loyal to the organization and the leader because they will be able to look at information that is given to them and make good decisions and implications based on it. Conscientiousness has received the most research attention in relation to OCB (Borman, Penner, Allen, & Motowildo, 2001). Organ and Ryan (1995) found that conscientiousness is positively related to citizenship behavior.

In addition, conscientiousness as a personality trait, has many commonalities with Organizational Citizenship Behavior. This factor of the Big Five refers

to a personality predisposition demonstrating seriousness of purpose (Deluga, 1998). Both OCB and conscientiousness describe a subordinate's actions that go beyond those minimal job-role standards. However, there has been research done in the area that has argued and empirically supported that those subordinates that are conscientious may in fact be actually more interested in successfully completing their task than initiating non prescribed OCB (Organ & Lingl, 1992).

Also, recent research and meta-analyses revealed that subordinate conscientiousness is consistently related to job performance across all occupational groups, and can aid in predicting OCB (Konovsky & Organ, 1996). In addition, in a study of managerial judgments of potential candidates' qualifications, conscientiousness emerged as important regardless of job content. Dunn, Mount, Barrick, and Ones (1995) suggested that those applicants exhibiting high conscientiousness, which is reflected in an organized, systematic, and clean approach, will perform better on the job. Thus, conscientiousness is considered a primary trait variable in organizational psychology, and compared to the other factors in the Big Five Model, a strong predictor of in-role behavior and OCB (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Konovsky & Organ, 1996).

There has been research that supports a connection between subordinate-supervisor similarity and LMX (Graen & Cashman, 1975). Earlier LMX work indicates that subordinates and supervisors serve as important sources of goal attainment for both the subordinate and supervisor (Dansereau et al., 1975). Due to this, it would seem reasonable to conclude that conscientiousness is a strong predictor for predicting performance and could foster interpersonal communication and compatibility, facilitate performance, and generate a high quality LMX relationship (Byrne, 1971).

Studies have also found that conscientiousness is related to citizenship performance rather than task performance (Borman et al., 2001). Citizenship performance contributes to organizational effectiveness, but its main purpose in an organization is to shape organizational, social, and psychological context that serves as a catalyst for both task activities and task processes. Research has found that conscientiousness tends to be a significant predictor of citizenship performance or OCB ($r = .42$), and explains above and beyond any effects accounted for by neuroticism and extroversion (Borman, et al., 2001). The relationship between conscientiousness and citizenship performance helps to provide further support

for the assertion that personality constructs are more strongly associated with citizenship performance than they are task performance (Borman et al., 2001).

The nature of the organizational culture as well as the leader can affect the relationship between OCB and conscientiousness. For example in a study performed by Hogan, Rybicki, Motowildo, and Borman (1998) they found a pattern of results suggesting that job and organizational characteristics may affect the relationship between conscientiousness and OCB. For employees in jobs where promotion was unlikely, conscientiousness was found to be the best predictor of OCB. On the other hand, in jobs where promotion was more likely to occur, conscientiousness was not the best predictor of OCB, but rather ambition was (Hogan et al., 1998).

Similar parallels of the above results can also be applied to the degree of quality between a leader and member in an organization. If a member's leader has direct contact with those individuals who decide how the organization will be run, a similar relationship between conscientiousness and OCB will be found. The more information and resources that are given to the member, the more likely they will not be affected by different

events in the workplace. Due to this, the member will continue to go beyond the expected behaviors.

Hypothesis 3: The relationship between quality of LMX and OCB will be moderated by conscientiousness. The relationship will strengthen between LMX and OCB. Due to the properties of the moderator in leadership theory, the moderator variable will enhance the relationship between LMX and OCB.

Dispositional Affectivity

Affect infuses the organizational work place. It is present in the relationships that individuals hold with supervisors, fellow co-workers, and subordinates. Affective processes or emotions create and maintain motivation in the work place and can influence behavior, decision-making processes, and interactions among the employees and supervisors (Barsade & Gibson, 2007). Strong affective feelings are present at any time that an individual confronts work issues that deal with themselves or their performance in the organization (Barsade & Gibson, 2007).

Affect can be thought of as encompassing a broad range of feelings that individuals experience. Included in these experiences, individuals can also experience

"feeling states", which are those in-the-moment, short-term affective experiences (Watson & Clark, 1984). . They can also experience "feeling traits", which are more stable tendencies and act in certain ways (Watson & Clark, 1984). For the purpose of the study, the "feeling trait" will be focused on.

Dispositional affect is a personality trait, and it is expressed by a person's relatively stable tendency to see things in either a positive or negative way (Watson & Clark, 1984). Dispositional affect is examined through an approach that summarizes the wide variety of possible human affective experiences into a few critical underlying dimensions (Barsade & Gibson, 2007). Watson and Tellegen (1985) claim that there are two dimensions of dispositional affect. The two dimensions are positive affectivity and negative affectivity. Watson and Tellegen (1985) also claim that individuals each have a certain level of both positive affectivity and negative affectivity. Due to this, positive affectivity does not represent the opposite of negative affectivity, but a different aspect from it. According to Watson and Tellegen (1985) an individual must regard these two dimensions as pivots which determine the positive affectivity and negative affectivity of an individual. These two

dimensions of dispositional affect are in fact bipolar, distinct and independent, have different emotional groups related to them therefore each individual can be classified with positive affectivity and negative affectivity score.

Dispositional affect can be measured by different questionnaires. Researchers often used the Positive Affectivity and Negative Affectivity Scale (PANAS) (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). According to the questionnaire, the individual is asked to indicate to what extent he or she feels a certain feeling or emotion such as happy, sad, excited, enthusiastic, guilty, distressed, afraid, etc. (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). An individual has to then indicate the most appropriate answer to each of the items on a five-point Likert-type scale. Early mapping of these emotions by researchers helps to determine the positive affectivity and negative affectivity of the individual (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988).

Positive Affectivity

Positive affectivity describes an individual's tendency to be cheerful and energetic, and experience positive moods, (e.g. pleasure or well-being), across a

variety of situations in their lives (Frederickson, 2001). Individuals who have low levels of positive affectivity are energetically low, sluggish, or melancholy. High levels of positive affectivity represents the extent to which an individual feels energetic and excited (Frederickson, 2001).

Organ and Ryan (1995) reported mean corrected correlations of .15 and .07 between positive affectivity and compliance. Several more recent studies have operationalized positive affectivity as the respondent's trait affect over some limited time period and found that positive mood is related to OCB (Borman et al., 2001). For example, Rioux and Penner (2001) found that positive affectivity was related to self-reports recorded for OCB. Also, Midili and Penner (1995) found that mood was related to co-worker ratings of OCB, and Fecteau et al. (2000) found that mood was related to co-worker ratings of citizenship performance.

In another study by Williams and Shiaw (1999), they examined the relationship of the effects of positive affectivity on an employee's OCB. In the study, they measured the effects of mood on the intentions of employees to contribute actions that are organizationally desirable but are not a part of their formal job

requirements (OCB) (William & Shiaw, 1999). After effects of established patterns of historical OCB, demographic characteristics, and employee positive and negative affectivity had been controlled, they found that the amount of positive affectivity currently being experienced by an employee significantly influenced the employee's intention to perform specific acts of organizational citizenship (Williams & Shiaw, 1999).

Since positive affectivity represents an individual's predisposition to react positively to the environment, it has been tested and supported that positive affectivity was positively related to many work, attitudes and outcomes (Copranzano et al., 1993). For example, positive affectivity has been shown to relate positively to job satisfaction (Ilies & Judge, 2003). Expanding on this very idea, even when these individuals are experiencing increased job demands or role-overload, as in the case in many high quality LMX relationships, individuals high in positive affectivity tend to focus on positive affects. Due to their positive attitude, these individuals who are satisfied with their job will be more willing to act on these satisfying feelings, and they will demonstrate actions that will benefit the organization and the leader by performing duties and behaviors that are outside their

given job description, which is described as OCB (Ilies & Judge, 2003).

Hypothesis 4: The relationship between quality of LMX and OCB will be moderated by positive affectivity. The relationship will strengthen between LMX and OCB. Due to the properties of the moderator in leadership theory, the moderator variable will enhance the relationship between LMX and OCB.

Negative Affectivity

On the other side, there is negative affectivity which describes an individual's tendency to be distressed and upset, and these individuals have a negative view of self over time and across situations (Frederickson, 2001). It is important to clarify that low levels of negative affectivity are perceived as positive traits since they represent individuals who are more calm, serene, and relaxed. High levels of negative affectivity represent the extent to which an individual feels anger, irritability, fear or nervousness (Frederickson, 2001).

Findings concerning relationships between negative affectivity and OCB reflect a fairly consistent, but low magnitude relationship (Borman et al., 2001). Organ and Ryan (1995) reported a mean average corrected correlation

of $-.06$ with compliance. More recent studies produce similar findings when it comes to negative affectivity and OCB.

In a study performed by Judge and Ilies (2004), they wanted to investigate the relationship between two broad issues. The first being across and within individual relationships between mood and job satisfaction, and the second was the spillover in moods experienced at work and home. Multilevel results revealed that job satisfaction affected positive mood after work, and that the spillover of job satisfaction onto positive and negative mood was stronger for employees high in trait-positive affectivity and high in trait negative affectivity (Judge & Ilies, 2004). The results of the study also indicated that the effect of mood at work on job satisfaction weakened as the time interval between the measurements increased (Judge & Ilies, 2004). Finally, they found that positive (negative) moods at work effected positive (negative) moods experienced later at home (Judge & Ilies, 2004). These results gave support to the notion that affectivity (positive trait and negative trait) leads to mood (state negative affectivity and state positive affectivity), and if moods leads to differential processing of job information, then these cognitive processes may explain

the effect of trait affectivity on job satisfaction (Judge & Ilies, 2004) and whether or not an individual is more willing to display OCB.

In conjunction with the idea of the nature of negative affectivity, researchers had proposed that individuals high on negative affectivity are more sensitive to stimuli (Brief & Weiss, 2002). This increase in sensitivity leads to a highly intense and stressful situation in the workplace. In a case where the individual is experiencing high job demands and role overload, and they have restricted levels of reciprocal influence and support from their supervisor, they will have the desire to help out the organization (OCB) or supervisor beyond from what they are expected to do (e.g. formal job description duties) (Brief & Weiss, 2002).

Hypothesis 5: The relationship between quality of LMX and OCB will be moderated by negative affectivity. The relationship will weaken the relationship between LMX and OCB. Due to the properties of the moderator in leadership theory, the moderator variable will neutralize augment the relationship between LMX and OCB.

CHAPTER TWO

METHOD

Participants

The sample ($n = 127$) consisted of working men and women from numerous organizations through out the United States. Also recruited were working students from a state university in Southern California. The participants consisted of 84 females (65.87%) and 43 males (34.13%) and with a mean age range of 31-40 yrs. ($SD = 1.68$). Participants had worked for their present supervisor for an average of 4 years ($M = 4.471$ yrs) and have an average of 2 supervisors ($M = 1.769$) in their current position. The sample was predominately White (67.46%), with Hispanic Americans (11.11%), White, Non-Hispanic (9.52%), African Americans (5.56%), Asian-Pacific (3.17%), and Native Americans (1.59%). The majority of the participants had some college education (33.33%), while the remaining had either higher educational experience, 4-yr College Degree (26.98%), Master's Degree (19.84%) and Doctoral Degree (.79%), or they a high school diploma (11.11%). The highest frequency income level of the sample was the range of \$50,000 to \$59,999 ($SD = 2.47$).

Measures

Quality of Leader-Member Exchange Relationship

In order to test the leader-member exchange an extensively pretested instrument was used, The Leader-Member Exchange (LMX-7) (Scandura & Graen, 1984) (See Appendix A). In the Liden et al. (1997) meta-analysis review of 48 studies, 18 studies cited the LMX-7 scale as the instrument of choice to measure LMX. The employee LMX-7 scale (ELMX) contains a four-point Likert scale. The scale is scored by summing up the responses for all the questions. The range of total score for employee (ETOTAL) is 7 to 28. A high score represented a more positive relationship with the supervisor, as perceived by the employee. The scale has been used in several studies to measure overall LMX. Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) found Cronbach's alpha for the LMX-7 scale to be $\alpha = .95$. In the current study, Cronbach's alpha for the LMX-7 scale was found to be $\alpha = .91$. An average of all items was calculated to represent quality of leader-member exchange relationship.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior

To measure the subordinate's organizational citizenship behaviors, the Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale (Smith et al., 1993) was used (See Appendix

B). The OCB scale contains 16 questions with a five-point Likert scale containing the following anchors: "never" (1), "seldom" (2), "occasionally" (3), "often" (4), "almost always" (5). The OCB scale has two subscales. The first subscale of the OCB is altruism (e.g. helps others who have been absent; volunteers for things that are not required; orients new people even though it is not required; helps others who have heavy workloads). The second subscale of the OCB was compliance (e.g. punctuality; attendance at work is above the norm; gives advance notice if unable to come to work; does not take extra breaks; does not spend time in idle conversations. The OCB scale is scored by summing up responses for all questions. The possible range of the total is 16 to 80. A high score represented a high display of organizational citizenship. The OCB scale subscale, altruism, was calculated by summing up responses for questions 1, 3, 5, 7, 12, and 13 (range 6 to 30). For the second subscale, compliance, was calculated by summing up responses the questions 2, 4, (reversed), 6, 9, 10 (reversed), 11, 14, and 16 (range is 8 to 40). Cronbach's alpha for the altruism items was $\alpha = .76$ (Smith et al., 1993) and in the current study it was $\alpha = .72$ and for the compliance items $\alpha = .56$ (Smith et al., 1993) and in the current study

$\alpha = .54$. An average of all items was calculated to represent OCB.

Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivational Orientations

Intrinsic motivational orientations and extrinsic motivational orientations were measured by Amabile's (1994) Work Preference Inventory (WPI) (See Appendix C). The WPI is a 30-item inventory for the assessment of intrinsic and extrinsic motivations conceptualized as independent traits, each measured by two secondary scales. Intrinsic motivation is subdivided into Enjoyment (the tendency to engage in activities because they are interesting, exciting, or satisfying; e.g. "It is important for me to be able to do what I most enjoy") and Challenge (the self-rewarding tendency to tackle and master complex tasks; e.g. "I enjoy tackling problems that are completely new to me"). Extrinsic motivation is subdivided into Outward (the tendency to engage in activities because of the dictates of others or of the potential recognition by others; e.g. "I am concerned about how other people are going to react to my ideas") and Compensation (the tendency to engage in activities with the purpose of obtaining a reward proportional to one's effort; e.g. "I am keenly aware of the goals I have for getting good grades").

The WPI items were scored on a 4-point scale ranging from 0 ("never or almost never true of me") 3 ("always or almost always of me"). Cronbach's alpha for intrinsic motivation in the WPI is $\alpha = .82$ (Amabile et al., 1994) and in the current study it was found to be $\alpha = .80$ and for extrinsic motivation it was $\alpha = .76$ (Amabile et al., 1994) and in the current study $\alpha = .66$. The Cronbach's alpha was found to be lower than what previous research has found, but was found to not be a concern since the current study is only looking at intrinsic motivational orientations and not extrinsic motivational orientations. An average of all intrinsic motivational orientation items and an average of all extrinsic motivational orientations items were calculated to represent each trait score.

Conscientiousness

In order to measure the trait level of conscientiousness for an individual, a shorter version and more time efficient version of the Big Five Personality Inventory was used, the "Mini-Marker" (See Appendix D). Goldberg (1992) developed a robust, set of 100 adjective markers for the Big-Five factor structure found in phenotypic personality description. Because an even briefer marker set might be advantageous under certain assessment conditions, the performance of these 100

markers in 12 data sets was scrutinized, leading to the selection of an optimally robust subset of only 40 adjectives by Saucier (1994). This "Mini-Marker" subset demonstrated unusually impressive features for an abbreviated inventory, consisting of five scales that show, in comparison to the original scales, less use of difficult items, lower interscale correlations, and somewhat higher mean inter-item correlations; alpha reliabilities are somewhat lower. Cronbach's alpha for the 40-item "Mini Marker" scale was $\alpha = .81$ for the self-items (Saucier, 1994). In the current study Cronbach's alpha was found to be $\alpha = .81$ for conscientiousness. For the purpose of this study, only the items dealing with conscientiousness were included in the final score (positively related items-organized, efficient, systematic, and practical,) and (negatively related items-disorganized, sloppy, inefficient, and careless). High ratings of the items positively associated and low ratings of the negatively associated with conscientiousness represented high levels of conscientiousness, and low ratings on the items positively associated and high ratings on the items negatively associated with conscientiousness represented low levels

of conscientiousness. An average of all items was calculated to represent conscientiousness.

Positive Affectivity and Negative Affectivity

To measure positive affectivity and negative affectivity, the PANAS (Positive Affectivity and Negative Affectivity Scale) (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988) was used (See Appendix E). The scale consisted of 10 positive affects (interested, excited, strong, enthusiastic, proud, alert, inspired, determined, attentive, and active) and 10 negative affects (distressed, upset, guilty, scared, hostile, irritable, ashamed, nervous, jittery, and afraid). Participants were asked to rate the items on a scale from 1 to 5, based on the strength of emotion where 1 = "very slightly or not at all" and 5 = "extremely". The scales were shown to be internally consistent, Cronbach's alpha for positive affectivity, $\alpha = .86$ to $.90$ and for negative affectivity, $\alpha = .84$ to $.87$ (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). In the current study Cronbach's alpha for positive affectivity was $\alpha = .90$ and for negative affectivity it was $\alpha = .85$. An average of all positive affectivity items and an average of negative affectivity items were calculated to represent each trait score.

Additional demographic questions were asked in the measure (See Appendix F). These questions are basic

demographic questions specific to the participant that ask for their age, gender, race, educational level, and income. There are questions that are related specifically to the nature of their position in the organization and relationship with supervisor. These questions were asked to see how many supervisors are they currently working for and how long have they worked with those current supervisors in order to gain a fuller understanding of the participant's relationships with their supervisors.

Procedure

The survey packet was created that contained the three personality measures, leader-member exchange measure, OCB measure, demographic information, and questions about their relationship with leader (e.g. number of supervisors and duration of time with supervisor). Surveys were made accessible to participants online via Survey Monkey software. All contacts were made by the researcher working on the project. Online surveys had no identifying information; consequently all responses were anonymous.

Participants completed all measures during one time period. The participants completed the personality measures first (Mini-Marker, WPI, & PANAS) and then they

completed the leader-member exchange (LMX-7) and OCB (OCB scale) measures followed by the demographic questions.

CHAPTER THREE

RESULTS

The full data set contained responses from a total of 127 participants. Before the analyses were executed, SPSS missing values analysis (MVA) was performed and revealed that the variables contained no missing data. Next, the variables in the study were examined for outliers, skewness, and kurtosis. Standardized z scores were calculated for all continuous variables. Using z scores and a criterion of $p < .001$, one univariate outlier was detected on the variable conscientiousness ($z = 4.127$, very inaccurate description of level of conscientiousness for the individual). This case was deleted from further analysis. Multivariate outliers among all the IV's were examined through the use of Mahalanobis distance with a criterion of $p < .001$. One multivariate outlier was detected and deleted. The assumptions of normality, linearity, homoscedascity were examined through examination of scatterplots or residuals and predicted scores. There was evidence that these normality assumptions were met. Finally, there was no evidence of multicollinerarity or singularity. After evaluation of the assumptions the major analyses were performed on data from

126 participants. For interpretation purposes, all variables were centered and recoded into new variables so that they had meaningful zeros.

Table 1 presents the bivariate correlations among the variables and Table 2 presents the unstandardized regression coefficients (labeled B), and the intercept, the standardized regression coefficients (labeled β), the semipartial correlations, R , R^2 , and adjusted R^2 . For hypothesis 1, regression was employed to test whether the quality of leader-member exchange relationship would be positively related to OCB. The results indicated that quality of LMX did not significantly predict OCB (Multiple $R = .115$, $R^2 = .013$, R^2 adjusted = .005, $F(1,124) = 2.311$, $p > .05$). Hypothesis 1 was not supported.

For hypothesis 2, hierarchical regression was employed to test whether the relationship between quality of LMX and OCB would be moderated by intrinsic motivational orientations, and that the relationship of LMX and OCB would therefore be strengthened. The results of the analysis for model 1, were significant (Multiple $R = .281$, $R^2 = .079$, R^2 adjusted = .064, $F(2,123) = 5.257$, $p < .05$). Also, intrinsic motivation significantly predicted OCB scores and LMX did not ($\beta = .819$, $t(123) = 2.956$, $p < .05$). Due to this, 7.9% of the

variance in OCB can be accounted for by an individual's level of intrinsic motivation. On the other hand, the interaction, model 2, between LMX and intrinsic motivation was not significant ($R^2\text{change} = .006$, $F(1,122) = .830$, $p > .05$). Therefore, these results are indicating that intrinsic motivation is not moderating and strengthening the relationship between quality of LMX and OCB. Hypothesis 2 was not supported.

For hypothesis 3, hierarchical regression was employed to test whether the relationship between quality of LMX and OCB would be moderated by conscientiousness and that the relationship of LMX and OCB would therefore be strengthened. The results of the analysis, model 1, were significant (Multiple $R = .306$, $R^2 = .093$, $R^2\text{ adjusted} = .079$, $F(2,123) = 6.392$, $p < .05$). Also, conscientiousness significantly predicted OCB scores and LMX did not ($\beta = .282$, $t(123) = 3.278$, $p < .05$). Due to this, 9.3% of variance in OCB can be accounted for by an individual's level of conscientiousness. The interaction, model 2, between LMX and conscientiousness (moderator) was not significant ($R^2\text{change} = .000$, $F(1,122) = .024$, $p > .05$). These results indicate that conscientiousness is not moderating the relationship between quality of LMX and OCB. Hypothesis 3 was not supported.

For hypothesis 4, hierarchical regression was employed to test whether the relationship between quality of LMX and OCB would be moderated by positive affectivity and that the relationship of LMX and OCB would be strengthened. The results of the analysis, model 1, were (Multiple R = .421, $R^2 = .177$, R^2 adjusted = .164, $F(2,123) = 13.242$, $p < .05$). Also, positive affectivity significantly predicted OCB scores and LMX did not ($\beta = .747$, $t(123) = 4.949$, $p < .05$). Due to this, 17.7% of the variance in OCB can be accounted for by an individual's level of positive affectivity. The interaction, model 2, between LMX and positive affectivity (moderator) was not significant (R^2 change = .015, $F(1,122) = 2.307$, $p > .05$). Therefore, these results indicate that positive affectivity is not moderating or strengthening the relationship between quality of LMX and OCB. Hypothesis 4 was not supported.

For hypothesis 5, hierarchical regression was employed to test whether the relationship between quality of LMX and OCB would be moderated by negative affectivity and that the relationship of LMX and OCB would be weakened. The results of the analysis, model 1, were significant (Multiple R = .316, $R^2 = .100$, R^2 adjusted = .085, $F(2,123) = 6.823$, $p < .05$). Also,

negative affectivity significantly predicted OCB scores and LMX did not ($\beta = -.542$, $t(123) = -3.439$, $p < .05$). This is stating that 10% of the variance in OCB can be accounted for by and individual's level of negative affectivity. The interaction, model 2, between LMX and negative affectivity (moderator) was not significant ($R^2\text{change} = .011$, $F(1,122) = 1.565$, $p > .05$). Therefore, these results indicate that negative affectivity is not moderating or weakening the relationship between quality of LMX and OCB. Hypothesis 5 was not supported.

Due to the low reliability of the Compliance subscale of the OCB scale, $\alpha = .54$, the split correlations were run on the moderator variables with each subscale of the OCB scale. There was some minimal evidence based upon the split correlations on altruism that there was some moderation. The hypotheses testing analyses therefore were rerun. Instead of using the combine subscales of the OCB scale as the outcome variable in the analyses, just the Altruism subscale of the OCB scale was employed as the outcome variable since it had the higher reliability. The results of these analyses did not significantly differ from the results of the original analyses, therefore the original hypotheses testing analyses were used for interpretation of the final findings.

In addition, to explore whether or not the number of supervisors had an effect on why the leadership variable was found to not have a relationship with OCB, a final analysis was run. Hierarchical regression was employed to test whether the relationship between quality of LMX and OCB would be moderated by the number of supervisors an individual has. The results of the analysis, model 1, were not significant (Multiple R = .152, $R^2 = .023$, R^2 adjusted = .007, $F(2,123) = 1.449$, $p > .05$). Therefore number of supervisors is not a significant predictor of OCB scores. On the other hand, the results of the interaction between LMX and number of supervisors was significant (R^2 change = .030, $F(1,122) = 3.895$, $p < .05$). Also, the interaction between number of supervisors and LMX significantly predicts OCB scores ($\beta = -.071$, $t(122) = -1.974$, $p < .05$). These results thus indicated that there was an effect on the leadership variable due to the fact that individuals had more than one supervisor. The relationship between LMX and OCB was stronger for individuals with one supervisor than those with more than one supervisor.

CHAPTER FOUR

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to determine whether or not personality would strengthen or weaken the relationship between the quality of one's relationship with their leader (LMX) and performance outcomes (OCB), personality did not act as a moderator. The results of the study suggest a different role for personality. The findings suggest that personality is the strongest predictor of whether or not an employee will display organizational citizenship behavior. More specifically the personality traits; intrinsic motivational orientation, conscientiousness, positive affectivity, and negative affectivity are those that have been suggested by previous studies to be highly correlated with OCB (Borman et al., 2001). Therefore, a person's own attributes are what are going to determine if they will take on those extra role behaviors or choose not too. It was hypothesized that personality would play the role of a moderator in the relationship between LMX and OCB by either enhancing or weakening the relationship. Instead personality plays a more dominant role in a person's OCB.

There may also be components of leadership that were not able to be captured by the LMX-7 and these components may be essential in promoting OCB. The extent to which an employee exhibits OCB or any behavior is a function of the employee's ability, motivation, and opportunity. In part, an employee's motivation and ability are determined by the personality factors that have already been discussed, to play a major role. There can also be the effect of what the leader can do to influence an employee's motivation, ability, or opportunity to engage in OCB through the leader's own behavior or by shaping employee' environment (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006). Motivation determines how hard an employee will try to engage in the behavior (OCB), and the combination of ability and opportunity determine whether the employee can successfully exhibit the behavior (OCB) (Organ et al., 2006). These elements that compose leadership were not completely captured by the items in the LMX-7, and perhaps then there are other aspects of leadership that may contribute to OCB.

There are also leadership styles that a leader can employ that will be more likely promote OCB in employees that the LMX-7 does not capture. More specifically the leadership style that can be employed to promote OCB is

transformational leadership. Transformational leadership is a give and take exchange process associated with leadership reward and punishment behaviors, and it involves fundamentally changing the values, goals, and aspirations of employees so that they are intrinsically motivated to perform their work (Organ et al., 2006). The increase in performance is due to the consistency with the employees' values, rather than it being extrinsically motivated by the expectation that they will be rewarded for their efforts (Organ et al., 2006). Transformational leadership is made possible when a leader's end values (internal standards) are adopted by followers thereby producing changes in the attitudes, beliefs, and goals of the subordinates (Organ et al., 2006). The items used to measure the leadership variable were specific to the nature of the relationship between the leader and the member. Nonetheless, the types of leader behaviors that have been associated with OCB (Organ et al., 2006) are not just limited to those that compose the leader-member relationship, but there are other components of leadership (e.g. transformational leadership) that the LMX-7 does not capture, and therefore the leadership variable lacks a relationship to OCB.

The findings in this study are consistent with the literature in the area of linking personality and OCB. Organ and Ryan's (1995) meta analysis provided the best estimates of the magnitude of relations between personality constructs and OCB dimensions. When one considers the traits such as conscientiousness, positive affectivity, negative affectivity, and intrinsic motivational orientation, they will probably pre dispose people to certain orientations as co-workers and managers. These orientations will more likely increase the likelihood of receiving treatment from those in supervisory positions that they would recognize them as satisfying, supportive, fair, and worthy of commitment (Organ et al., 1995). Due to this, the individual will more likely have a positive relationship with their supervisor, as well as a higher sense of loyalty and commitment to both the organization and supervisor. This will help to increase the probability that the individual will then proceed to have a sense of responsibility and accountability for their actions and therefore take the extra steps necessary to get tasks and projects done. It may also be the case that those that tend to have these personality traits will be more likely to be those that are in the positions in the organization that require them

to be more responsible and accountable for their tasks and responsibility. These personality traits will put them in these more trusted and higher ranked positions that they are in.

Surprisingly, LMX was not found to be predictive of OCB or to have a relationship with the personality variables. It has been shown in previous studies that LMX is related with OCB and the five personality traits that were measured in the study (Gerstner & Day, 1997). An explanation for the lack of a relationship of LMX to OCB was due to a measurement error. For the majority of the components that comprise a quality exchange relationship between a leader and a member were consistent with the literature in the area of LMX and its linkage to OCB. An important note to make is that the average number of supervisors that the participants had was two which is inconsistent with the LMX and OCB literature. This could have also lead to the non-significant findings for leadership variable. If a participant had more than one supervisor they could have answered the questions in the leadership scale about both supervisors instead of one. The problem with this is that one question in the leadership scale may have pertained to one supervisor where another question may have been focused on the other

supervisor. Therefore the responses did not reflect the same, one direct leader-member relationship. This could explain why the leadership variable was found to have no relationship. When looking at LMX and what qualifies a relationship between a leader and member the theory clearly states that it is a dyadic relationship (Gerstner & Day, 1997). In other words the theory is only testing the direct relationship between one leader and one member. This is inconsistent with the number of supervisor relationships that were tested in the study. This could be corrected by specifying in the survey that only one supervisor, preferably the one you have the most contact with, as the one to use when answering the questions. This way one leader-member relationship is being looked at and explained instead of a combination of one.

In addition, having multiple supervisors changes the nature of the relationship between LMX and OCB and this relationship is stronger with only one supervisor. By having more than one supervisor it creates multiple roles for an employee. They not only have the roles and job responsibilities that are associated with one supervisor, but they have multiple roles and job responsibilities now associated with each supervisor. This can cause a blur between these roles and how effective a leader can be with

their subordinate. Not only does the employee have to answer to one supervisor, but they have many. The nature of the differing relationship that subordinates have with each supervisor changes the nature of leadership influence in general.

Implications

The results of this study have important practical as well as theoretical implications that should be taken into consideration. Since it was found that personality has a strong influence on an individual's performance in the work place it would be useful information for Human Resources departments, specifically those that deal with selection and recruitment. By knowing that higher levels of intrinsic motivational orientations, conscientiousness, and positive affectivity, and lower levels of negative affectivity can produce more committed and loyal employees, they can use this information and integrate personality assessment that measure these traits into their selection devices. This will help them to select better potential candidates for a position that will tend to be more committed and loyal to the organization.

The personality findings will also not only benefit selection and recruitment but also provide beneficial

information to those designing job design analyses for positions. By knowing that these personality traits will lead a person to have predisposed skills that will increase the performance on a job, they can design the position to include those qualifications that the job requires in order for it to be successfully performed. This will help give those recruiting for specific positions a better guideline on what to look for in selecting potential candidates that will be successful on the job. Recruiters can select employees who have a greater ability to exhibit OCB because of their dispositional characteristics (e.g. they are naturally conscientious, altruistic, and etc.) which will result in highly motivated employees and greater performance of the organization.

In addition, by identifying other factors that are associated with OCB, leaders can use this to help promote OCB and motivate their employees. For example, organizations can learn the benefits of transformational leadership style and select leaders who exhibit this type of style, promote a work environment that allows for it, or use it as a guideline for their leaders in training to aid in promoting OCB (Organ et al., 2006).

Transformational leaders get their employees to perform

above and beyond expectations by articulating a vision, providing an appropriate role model, fostering the acceptance of group goals, providing individualized support and intellectual stimulation, and expressing high performance and expectations (Organ et al., 2006). By them having a leader that is an appropriate role model, it will involve the leader setting an example for employees to follow that is consistent with both the values of the leader and the goals of the organization.

Organizations should also take into consideration the impact of having multiple supervisors has on the overall influence and performance of their employees. By realizing that there is conflict created in job roles for the employee due to multiple supervisors, this can help to answer why leadership influences do not always lead to expected outcomes. In today's society, it may be necessary for organizations to have multiple supervisors. This may be beneficial to organizations because they are cutting back on recruiting additional employees to fill multiple roles in multiple departments, but it could be costing the organization to not have the performance they need from their current employees. If an organization is not getting the desired outcome from their current structure of leadership it maybe due to having these multiple

supervisors for every one employee, and organizations should consider this effect when designing their leadership structure and goals.

On the theoretical side, the findings may have not fully supported the literature on the relationships between the variables, but it helped to give additional support and explain the importance of each variable and the correct methods that should be used in order to measure them accurately.

Limitations

An important limitation to the findings is commonly associated with interactions in hierarchical regression. Due to the size of the sample, when testing an interaction among two variables that are highly correlated with one another it is often difficult to find enough unique variance among the variables that will produce significant findings. If the sample is small, then there is not enough unique variance to be tested and explained resulting in decreasing the ability to find any additional information that will capture a better understanding of the construct. In this case, after the moderator variable was created in the second model of the analysis, there was not enough left over variance that could enhance the explanation of

the prediction which lead to the non significant findings. However, even though there was no support for significant moderators and the betas were found to be non significant, several of the individual differences did show moderate change in the relationship which was based upon the moderators and the appropriate direction of the relationship.

Also, the diverse range of the occupations and relationships among the sample was a limitation. The survey was distributed to anyone who had a supervisor. The organization, job position, or nature of the relationship among the employee and supervisor was not specified in what qualified a participant. Therefore, the sample consisted of a wide variety of professions and member-supervisor relationships. This could have hindered the findings in a way that the responses to the survey questions were not uniformed. Instead the responses were specific in how each participant viewed the question based upon their own job environment, position, experience, and the nature of the relationship between the supervisor and member (direct or non direct). If the responses were coming from different experiences and interpretations this could have lead to discrepancies between the data and the lack of relationships among the variables.

Future Direction

Due to the limitations of the study, future research should take these into consideration and expand on them. When looking at potential participants to be in the study, the researchers should look at a specific sample instead of such a general one, and specify that one leader-member relationship should be considered when answering the questions regarding one's supervisor. This could lead to less ambiguity in the responses on the leadership scale and will more likely reflect the one relationship instead of many. This could lead to a more accurate representation of the relationship between the member and supervisor, and will help give the leadership variable more weight in explanation for understanding the relationship between LMX and OCB.

It would also be beneficial to expand on the research of the relationship between LMX and OCB in terms of what elements of leadership are included in the relationship. Since the findings of the study suggest that there may be elements to leadership that are not captured by just the leader-member relationship measured by the LMX-7, other components of leadership should be researched to aid in providing support for the relationship between LMX and OCB. This study suggested that there are dispositional

factors of employees that are influenced by leaders, leadership styles, and the organizational work environment will be important promoters of OCB, but they are not captured by the LMX-7. Therefore, in order to have a complete understanding of the relationship between LMX and OCB all components of leadership need to be accounted for and taken into consideration not just one.

APPENDIX A
THE LEADER-MEMBER EXCHANGE

LMX-7 (Graen & Ulbien, 1995)

1. Do you know where you stand with your leader...do you usually know how satisfied your leader is with what you do? (Does your member usually know)
Rarely Occassionally Sometimes Fairly Often Very Often
2. How well does your leader understand your job problems and needs? (How well do you understand)
Not a Bit A Little A Fair Amount Mostly Fully
3. How well does your leader recognize your potential? (How well do you recognize)
Not a Bit A Little A Fair Amount Mostly Fully
4. Regardless of how much formal authority he/she has built into his/her position, what are the chances that your leader would use his/her power to help you solve problems in your work? (What are the chances that you would?)
None Small Moderate High Very High
5. Again, regardless of the amount of formal authority your leader has, what are the chances that he/ she would "bail you out" at his/her expense? (What are the chances that you would)
None Small Moderate High Very High
6. I have enough confidence in my leader that I would defend and justify his/her decision if he/she were not present to do so? (Your member would)
Strongly Disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly Agree
7. How would you characterize your working relationship with your leader? (Your member)
Extremely Worse Average Better Than Extremely
Ineffective Than Average Average Ineffective

APPENDIX B
ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR SCALE

OCB Scale (Smith et al., 1983)

Please rate the degree to which you agree with the following descriptive statements regarding your work group.

The ratings scale is as follows:

	Never 1	Seldom 2	Occasionally 3	Often 4	Almost Always 5
1. Help others who have been absent.					1 2 3 4 5
2. Volunteers for things that are not required.					1 2 3 4 5
3. Orients new people even though is not required.					1 2 3 4 5
4. Help others who have heavy work loads.					1 2 3 4 5
5. Assists supervisor with his or her work.					1 2 3 4 5
6. Makes innovative suggestions to improve department.					1 2 3 4 5
7. Attends functions not required that help company image.					1 2 3 4 5
8. Punctuality.					1 2 3 4 5
9. Attendance at work is above norm.					1 2 3 4 5
10. Gives advance notice when unable to come to work.					1 2 3 4 5
11. Does not take unnecessary time off of work.					1 2 3 4 5
12. Takes undeserved work breaks.					1 2 3 4 5
13. Coasts toward the end of the day.					1 2 3 4 5
14. Great deal of time spent with personal phone conversations.					1 2 3 4 5
15. Does not take extra breaks.					1 2 3 4 5
16. Does not spend time in idle conversation.					1 2 3 4 5

APPENDIX C
WORK PREFERENCE INVENTORY

WPI (Amabile et al., 1994)

Please rate the degree to which you agree with the following descriptive statements regarding yourself.

The rating scale is as follows:

		Almost		Almost	
	Never	Never of Me		Always of Me	Always
	0	1		2	3
1. I am not that concerned about what other people think of my work.			0	1	2 3
2. I prefer having someone set clear goals for me in my work.			0	1	2 3
3. The more difficult the problem, the more I enjoy trying to solve it.			0	1	2 3
4. I am keenly aware of the income goals I have for myself.			0	1	2 3
5. I want my work to provide me with opportunities for increasing my knowledge and skills.			0	1	2 3
6. To me, success means doing better than other people.			0	1	2 3
7. I prefer to figure things out for myself.			0	1	2 3
8. No matter what the outcome of a project, I am satisfied if I feel I gained a new experience.			0	1	2 3
9. I enjoy relatively simple, straightforward tasks.			0	1	2 3
10. I am keenly aware of the promotion goals I have for myself.			0	1	2 3
11. Curiosity is the driving force behind much of what I do.			0	1	2 3
12. I'm less concerned with what work I do than what I get for it.			0	1	2 3
13. I enjoy tackling problems that are completely new to me.			0	1	2 3

14. I prefer work I know I can do well over work that stretches my abilities.	0	1	2	3
15. I'm concerned about how other people are going to react to my ideas.	0	1	2	3
16. I seldom think about salary and promotions.	0	1	2	3
17. I'm more comfortable when I can set my own goals.	0	1	2	3
18. I believe that there is no point in doing a good job if nobody else knows about it.	0	1	2	3
19. I am strongly motivated by the money I can earn.	0	1	2	3
20. It is important for me to be able to do what I most enjoy.	0	1	2	3
21. I prefer working on projects with clearly specified procedures.	0	1	2	3
22. As long as I can do what I enjoy, I'm not that concerned about exactly what I'm paid.	0	1	2	3
23. I enjoy doing work that is so absorbing that I forget about everything else.	0	1	2	3
24. I am strongly motivated by the recognition I can earn from other people.	0	1	2	3
25. I have to feel that I'm earning something for what I do.	0	1	2	3
26. I enjoy trying to solve complex problems.	0	1	2	3
27. It is important for me to have an outlet for self-expression.	0	1	2	3
28. I want to find out how good I really can be at my work.	0	1	2	3
29. I want other people to find out how good I really can be at my work.	0	1	2	3
30. What matters most to me is enjoying what I do.	0	1	2	3

APPENDIX D
THE 40-ITEM MINI MARKER SET

The 40-Item Mini Marker Set (Saucier, 1994)

How Accrately Can You Describe Yourself?

Please use this list of common human traits to describe yourself as accurately as possible. Describe yourself as you see yourself at the present time, not as you wish to be in the future. Describe yourself as you are generally or typically, as compared with other persons you know of the same sex and of roughly your same age.

Before each trait, please write a number indicating how accurately that trait describes you, using the following rating scale.

		<i>Inaccurate</i>		?			<i>Accurate</i>		
Extremely	Very	Moderately	Slightly		Slightly	Moderately	Very	Extremely	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	

___ Bashful	___ Energetic	___ Moody	___ Systematic
___ Bold	___ Envious	___ Organized	___ Talkative
___ Careless	___ Extraverted	___ Philosophical	___ Temperamental
___ Cold	___ Fretful	___ Practical	___ Touchy
___ Complex	___ Harsh	___ Quiet	___ Uncreative
___ Cooperative	___ Imaginative	___ Relaxed	___ Unenvious
___ Creative	___ Inefficient	___ Rude	___ Unintellectual
___ Deep	___ Intellectual	___ Shy	___ Unsympathetic
___ Disorganized	___ Jealous	___ Sloppy	___ Warm
___ Efficient	___ Kind	___ Sympathetic	___ Withdrawn

APPENDIX E

THE POSITIVE AFFECTIVITY AND NEGATIVE
AFFECTIVITY SCALE

The PANAS (Watson et al., 1988)

This scale consist of a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Read each item and then mark the appropriate answer in the space next to that word. Indicate to what extent you generally feel this way, that is, how you feel on the average. Use the following scale to record your answers.

	very slightly or not at all	a little	moderately	quite a bit	extremely	
	1	2	3	4	5	
___ interested						___ irritable
___ distressed						___ alert
___ excited						___ ashamed
___ upset						___ inspired
___ strong						___ nervous
___ guilty						___ determined
___ scared						___ attentive
___ hostile						___ jittery
___ enthusiastic						___ active
___ proud						___ afraid

APPENDIX F
DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONS

Demographic Questions

- 1) What is your age?
 - i) 18-21
 - ii) 22-25
 - iii) 26-30
 - iv) 31-40
 - v) 41-50
 - vi) 51-60
 - vii) 61 and over
- 2) Are you male or female?
 - i) Male
 - ii) Female
- 3) What is your race?
 - i) White
 - ii) White, non-Hispanic
 - iii) African-American
 - iv) Hispanic
 - v) Asian-Pacific Islander
 - vi) Native American
- 4) What is your highest educational level that you have completed?
 - i) Less than High School
 - ii) High School/GED
 - iii) Some College
 - iv) 2-yr College Degree (Associates)
 - v) 4-yr College Degree (BA or BS)
 - vi) Master's Degree
 - vii) Doctoral Degree
 - viii) Professional Degree (MD JD)
- 5) What is your own yearly income?
 - i) Less than \$10,000
 - ii) \$10,000-\$19,999
 - iii) \$20,000-\$29,999
 - iv) \$30,000-\$39,999
 - v) \$40,000-\$49,999
 - vi) \$50,000-\$59,999
 - vii) \$60,000-\$69,999
 - viii) \$70,000 and up
- 6) How many supervisors do you have? _____
- 7) How long have you worked for your current supervisor? _____

APPENDIX G

TABLES

Table 1: Bivariate Correlations and Descriptive Statistics of Variables

Variables	OCB (DV)	LMX	INT MOTV	CONC	PA	NA	NUM OF SUP
LMX	0.122	1					
INT MOTV	0.161	-0.046	1				
CONC	0.297*	0.097	0.199*	1			
PA	0.232*	0.121	0.534*	0.379*	1		
NA	-0.065	-0.109	0.057	-0.266*	-0.197*	1	
NUM OF SUP	-0.123	-0.279*	-0.050	-0.268	-0.084	0.068	1
Mean	3.915	3.722	2.731	7.211	3.658	1.846	1.841
SD	0.432	0.886	0.368	1.263	0.641	0.641	1.134

* p<.05

Table 2: Summary for Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) (N = 126)

Variable	Model 1						Model 2					
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	R^2	R^2 change	<i>F</i> for change in R^2	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	R^2	R^2 change	<i>F</i> for change in R^2
Leader-Member Exchange (LMX)	0.153	0.118	0.115	0.013	0.013	1.675						
Intrinsic Motivation (IM)	0.819	0.277	.256**	0.079	0.079	5.257*						
Conscientiousness (CONC)	0.096*	0.029	0.282*	0.093	0.093	6.392**						
Positive Affectivity (PA)	0.747	0.151	.408**	0.177	0.177	13.242**						
Negative Affectivity (NA)	-0.542*	0.158	-.296*	0.100	0.100	6.823*						
LMX x IM							0.286	0.314	0.079	0.085	0.006	0.830
LMX x CONC							0.006	0.038	0.115	0.094	0.000	0.024
LMX x PA							0.247	0.163	0.124	0.192	0.015	2.307
LMX x NA							-0.211	0.169	-0.108	0.111	0.011	1.565

* $p < .05$

** $p < .001$

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